

INTEGRATION OF HIGH RESOLUTION MULTISPECTRAL IMAGERY WITH LIDAR AND IFSAR DATA FOR URBAN ANALYSIS APPLICATIONS

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ABSTRACT

This paper presents the integration of 50 cm 4 band (R, G, B, and infrared) imagery with 80 cm LIDAR, and 2.5 meter posting IFSAR surface elevation models for urban scene analysis. The goal is to characterize urban scenes in terms of buildings, trees, roads, other geometrical structures, open areas, and various natural land covers. This type of information is useful for applications such as urban monitoring, change detection, and urban scene visualization. In this paper we present some of our recent findings for automated extraction of buildings, and integration of multiple sensors for landcover classification and feature extraction. In addition, we present a comparative analysis of the digital surface model provided by Laser altimeter, and Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (IFSAR). The algorithms presented in this paper are applied to an urban area composed of isolated and dense built areas, trees, and natural topography.

1 INTRODUCTION

Geographical information of urban areas is useful for a number of applications such as mission planning, monitoring of urban change and growth, and environmental impact studies. Remote sensing of urban areas provide an efficient methodology for populating databases for geographical information systems (GIS). These remote sensing methodologies include stereo optical photogrammetry, multispectral and hyperspectral imaging, Light detection and Ranging (LIDAR), Synthetic Aperture Radar (SAR), and Interferometric Synthetic Aperture Radar (IFSAR). The information provided by these measurement technologies can be divided into two categories: Land Cover, and three dimensional geometry. Multispectral and hyperspectral imaging and SAR measurements capture the land cover properties of a scene. Stereo Optical, LIDAR and IFSAR measurements provide the 3 dimensional information for a scene. The reflectance associated with these measurements is used to provide land cover information associated with the three dimensional geometry. The amount of efforts in terms of data acquisition and post processing varies significantly among these remote sensing methodologies. IFSAR systems provide fast data acquisition with near all weather, all time imaging capability. In this paper, we investigate the use of IFSAR and LIDAR sensors to create three dimensional information of an urban area. We also use a multispectral data to provide land cover information for the same scene. The use of land cover information is particularly useful for IFSAR data which contains artifacts due to radar multi-scattering effects.

2 DATA FUSION OVER URBAN ENVIRONMENTS

Urban three dimensional (3D) geometry and land cover are among the information required for urban analysis. Current

LIDAR systems are providing urban digital surface model with cm level accuracy. LIDAR high resolution data acquisition, however, is more time consuming in comparison with IFSAR systems. The IFSAR generated digital surface model accuracy is typically in the meter level range for natural topography. For urban areas, the surface model accuracy degrades due to shadowing, and layover effects. The surface model derived from either sensor requires additional processing to extract the bald earth topography, and geometrical features such as buildings. We use the land cover information provided by the high resolution multispectral sensor to assist with feature extraction, and the determination of the bald earth topography.

Integration of multispectral data with the surface model is carried out in two steps. First the multispectral data is segmented into physically descriptive classes, such as vegetation, built areas, bodies of water, and features such as road network. This information is then used to extract the bald earth topography, and to improve the accuracy of the segmentation algorithm.

The integration of the land cover data is particularly useful for interpretation of the topography generated by IFSAR data. For example, for the areas where the predominant land cover is trees, the reported IFSAR topography is somewhere from the top of the tree canopy to the bottom of the tree. The exact location of the reported height is dependent on parameters such as the tree geometrical structure, and the operating frequency. It is expected that for dense trees measured by an x-band (wavelength 3 cm) IFSAR system, the top of the tree canopy is measured. The reported height of the same area from an L-band IFSAR system (wavelength 24 cm), the measure height might be at the middle of the tree canopy. These height measurements are affected by the inherent noise sources in the radar system. Land cover classification provided by the multispectral sensor allows the

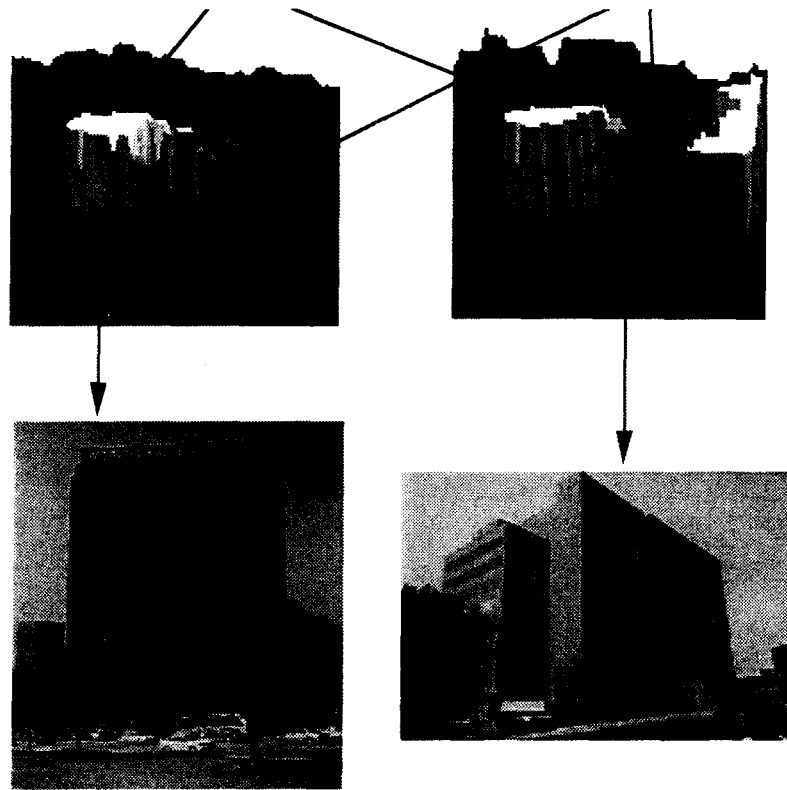


Figure 0: The original (*top left*) and extracted shapes (*top right*) of two buildings in S. Monica, Los Angeles. The starting data was a 2.5 m posting TOPSAR DTM.

delineation of the areas where the topography interpretation is more straight forward, such as open fields, and top of large building structures. We use this information to create a background (bald earth) topography from the IFSAR data. The information regarding the building structures are added to the bald earth topography using the building footprint information which is derived from the multi-spectral data, and the height information derived from the IFSAR data. The vegetation height is also included in the final digital surface model as the difference between the background topography and the IFSAR generated elevation model. The resulting digital elevation model includes the background topography, location and average height of building structures which are observable in the multispectral, and the IFSAR images, and the natural topography such as trees and open fields. The radar artifacts, such as the layover effects where large geometrical structures affect the height measurements of the neighbouring pixels are reduced using integration of multispectral data with IFSAR DEM.

3 A PLANE-FITTING REGULARIZATION ALGORITHM

In machine vision, it is usual to deal with 3D (also called *range*) images, and the major problem is to segment them to obtain surfaces that could be matched against some kind of surface model. The, the surface parameters may be computed by fitting the model and the data. This kind of approach can suitably describe the largest part of the approaches that have been and are presently developed in the field of LIDAR data analysis, with the exception of all the algorithms devoted to discriminate between buildings and vegetation.

In this work we want to introduce a recently developed algorithm for surface extraction and analysis, whose primary goal was to enhance the 3D geometry retrievable from interferometric SAR measurements. Indeed, it is well-known that this kind of data are affected by bounce effects of the radar pulse that cause false objects to appear. These phenomena, that are called layover and shadowing effects, produce a (possibly large) distortion of the 3D structure of the buildings in a urban, crowded environment. Therefore, a simple segmentation algorithm, with surface model fitting does not provide results of any interest if we start from these data. The algorithm has been introduced in Gamba and Houshmand, 1999 and will be soon available a longer and more precise paper (Gamba et al.,). In the following we give a quick outline of the procedure, and then we will see that, although not primarily suited for the task, it could be used for LIDAR data analysis with satisfying (even not excellent) results.

Note that, since the algorithm was devised for use with data highly affected by noise, it was suited so to exploit both the spatial and vertical resolutions of the original data, while maintaining at the same time a high robustness to noise. In particular, the criteria applied to segment the raw data are geometric ones, involving the principle of plane-fitting (i.e. to find the plane which better approximates a given surface). The idea is justified by the rough consideration that a building extraction approach should be able to detect first of all the roofs and walls of a given, observed structure. Such an idea could not be realized by means of a simple iterative region growing approach, because . Instead, the algorithm is a refined and adapted version of the range image segmentation procedure first presented in Jiang and Burke, 1994.

The algorithm starts from primitives of segmentation that are the lines of the image, in order to save cpu time as much as possible, and it works by means of five processing steps.

1. First of all, the procedure works on each image line by trying to group the pixels into consistent segments. The grouping is ruled by two parameters: the first one allows to join points with a step between them up to its value, while the second one determines the minimum length of each segment. By this way we may rule the regularization process, even if the choice should be careful. Indeed, by enlarging the first threshold we allow to recover from possible outcomes in the measurements, but we run the risk to give too much weight to isolated points. The second threshold, instead, is defined by the data resolution and the precision we want to have for edge detection. Even in this case the compromise is between smaller segments (smaller final regions, less surface regularization) and poorer edge (region boundaries) detection. We found that, for radar measurements it is possible to suitably choose these parameters, while for LIDAR data the problem is harder. Anyway, it is a good practice to set this length as small as possible with respect to the physical characteristics of the buildings to be extracted and the resolution of the image.
2. The second step consists in finding the *seeds* for the planar surfaces that we want to use to characterize the original

image. Differently from the previous version of the algorithm presented in Gamba and Houshmand, 1999, each seed is found by looking only for two adjacent segments belonging to two successive scan lines and with the most similar direction and z-axis intercept. So, similarity search is based on the following measure:

$$s_{ij} = \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{m_i m_j + 1}{\sqrt{m_i^2 + 1}} + \frac{n_i n_j + 1}{\sqrt{n_i^2 + 1}} \right) \quad (1)$$

where $z = m_i x + n_i$ is the generic segment equation. One of the reasons for this simple seed choice is just its simplicity; however, the main reason is that, dealing with complex buildings, the number of three-segment seeds that we may find is definitely lower than the one of two-segment seeds. Therefore, the successive region growing procedure may suffer from this problem and aggregate only a small number of other segments to the original seeds.

3. The third step is devoted to the enlargement of the seed just found. The task is accomplished by examining all the segments that *touch* in some way any seed, and whose parameters may be considered sufficiently similar to the seed ones. Again, the similarity is defined by means of (1). The

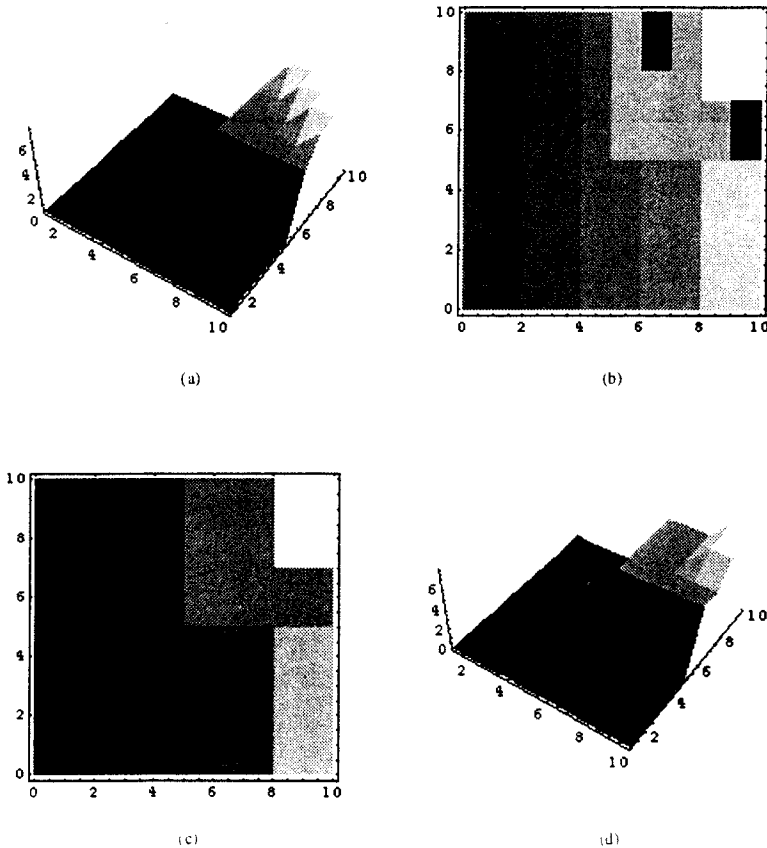


Figure 0. Some of the processing steps of the building extraction procedure: (a) the original data; (b) the region obtained by segment aggregation; (c) the region obtained by point and plane aggregation; (d) the final reconstructed object.



Figure 3:

research is made for all the isolated segments, and repeated until all of them have been added to a planar surface, or no further aggregation is possible. It is clear that a lower similarity threshold provides a larger regularization of the detected surfaces, but it is also possible that erroneously positioned segments, detected in the first step, produce a negative effect on the final result. To exclude the problem, it is necessary to require a high similarity before aggregation and this in turn produces a large number of segments that, at the end of this step, gave no contribution to surface detection.

4. To recover from what could be considered as an inaccuracy of the procedure, a further merging step takes into account separately all pixels left. In other words, we now neglect the segment analysis of the first step for all those pixels that have not been aggregated into a plane, and we try to merge them one at a time with the nearest plane. Even in this case the process is repeated after each computation of the plane parameters. By this way, we take into account the newly added points in the successive iteration.
5. Finally, the recovered planes may be connected into more complex regions if they are adjacent and their characteristics are similar, i. e. again:

$$s = \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{aa' + 1}{\sqrt{a^2 + 1}} + \frac{bb' + 1}{\sqrt{b^2 + 1}} + \frac{cc' + 1}{\sqrt{c^2 + 1}} \right) \quad (2)$$

is close to one, a , b , c being the three parameters identifying a plane.

Even after all these joining steps, it is still possible that a few pixels have not been considered in the final results. At this point, however, we do not consider it as an inaccuracy of the algorithm. Indeed, points affected by large noise, or regions where no actually planar surface is observable should not be aggregated, if we want to produce a meaningful segmentation of the original data.

An example of the regularization of radar data achieved by means of this algorithm may be found in figure 1, where the original and analyzed 3D profile of a small portion of Wilshire Boulevard, S. Monica, CA, is shown. In the figure we may recognize that the two major buildings, namely Worlds Savings and 11645 Wilshire Boulevard are more clearly devised after the detection procedure. Moreover, even if it not provided in the image, both of them were available as independent structures, as set of planar surfaces.

Figure 2, instead, provides a way to understand how the plane growing procedure acts through steps 3, 4, and 5 of the algorithm. Indeed, we may observe the original data (in this case, a grid extracted from LIDAR measurements), the boundaries of the planar regions initially detected, the final regions obtained after segment, point and plane aggregation, and the final result. Here black pixels represent areas that we were not able to characterize.

4 EXPERIMENTAL RESULTS

A portion the Presidio area in San Francisco, California is used for this study. This area contains natural topography such as hills, open areas, tree covered areas in addition to building of small to moderate footprint and heights. The IFSAR data is acquired from an airborne X-band, 80 Mhz IFSAR system. The IFSAR



Figure 4: Integration of multispectral with SAR data.

digital elevation model, and the associated radar intensity image are reported on a 2.5 meter grid. Figure BH1 shows the radar image of the region. The digital elevation model is shown in Figure BH2. The areas where radar artifacts corrupted the IFSAR measurements are removed and are indicated by dark color in BH2.

The LIDAR data of the same area is posted on a 80 cm grid. The lidar height accuracy is superior than that of IFSAR. As expected

for high resolution LIDAR data, the building geometries are observable for large and small structures. We note that the data acquisition time is considerably longer than the time required to capture the IFSAR data.

5 DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

High resolution Interferometric SAR can provide useful information for environment in terms of the three dimensional

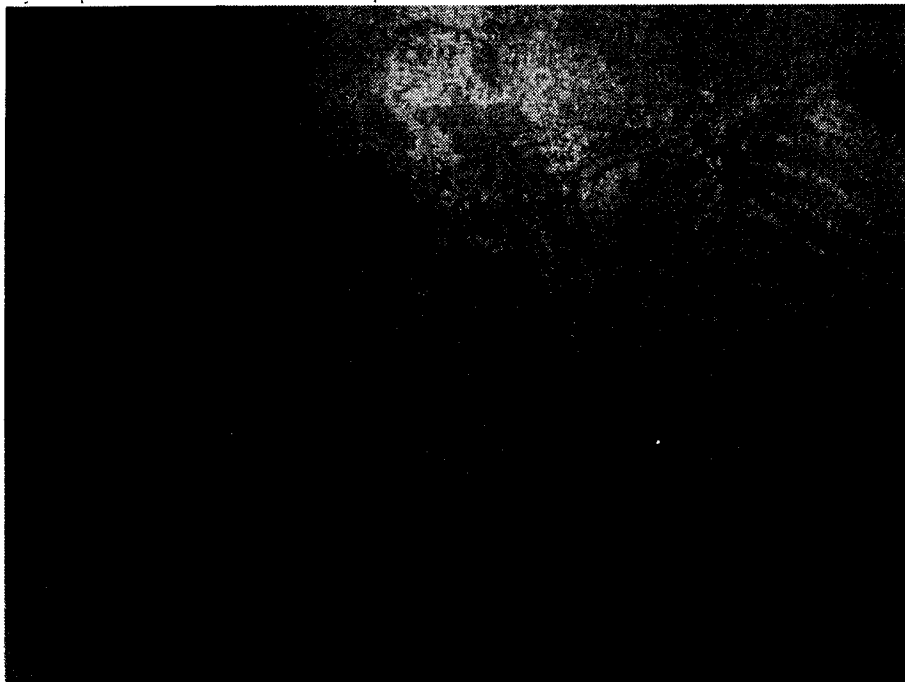


Figure 5.

geometry. The data quality is improved by using landcover information derived from multi-, or hyperspectral data. This type of data integration provides a methodology to remove the radar artifacts which are associated with urban environment such as layover effects. Our study shows that LIDAR provides a more accurate representation of urban three dimensional geometry. The IFSAR data can be used to extract isolated features such as a tall building, and the bald earth topography.

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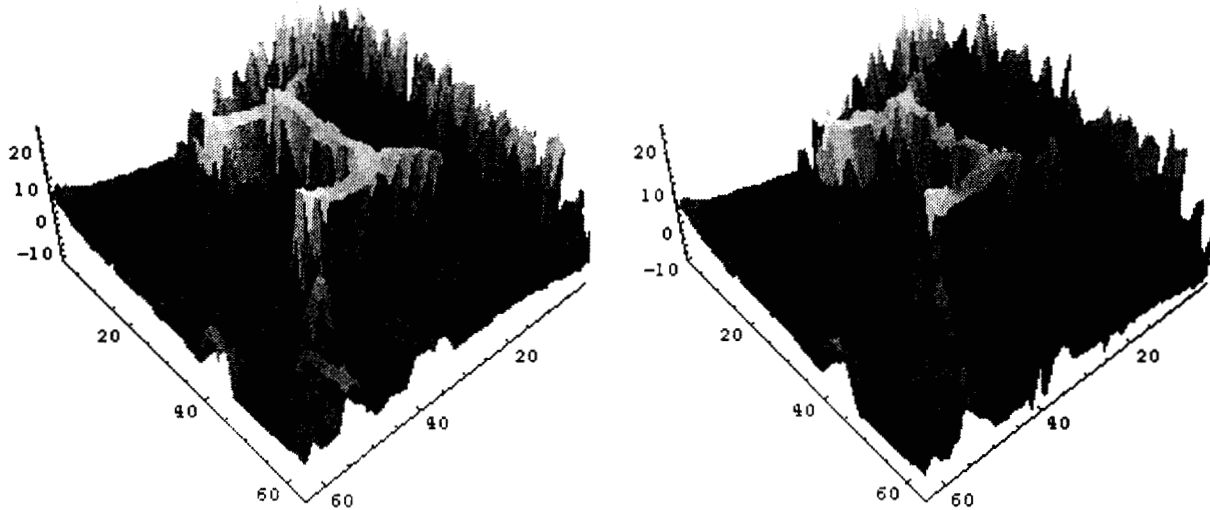


Figure 6:

- Height distribution comparison of LIDAR and IFSAR data.
- Color cycle representation of IFSAR and LIDAR data.

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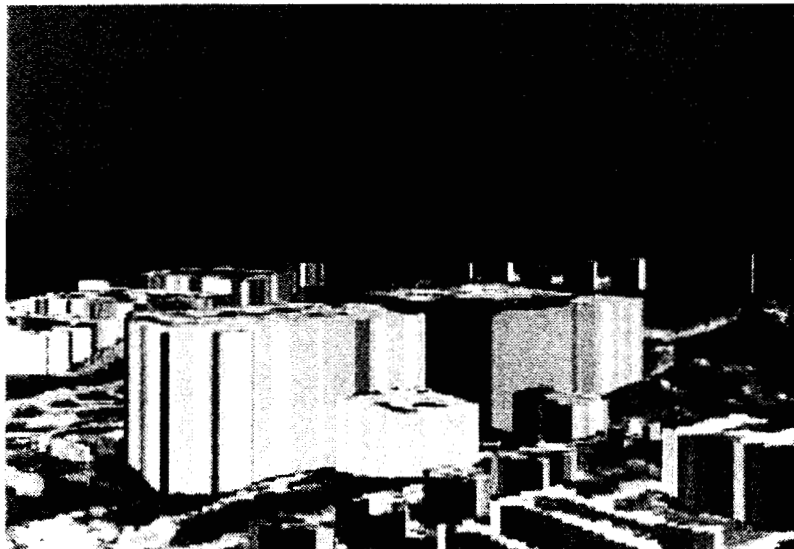


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